



Original communication

Osmium impregnation detection of pulmonary intravascular fat in sudden death: A study of 65 cases

Patrick J.H. Kim, MSc, Forensic Services Technologist^{a,b}, Michael S. Pollanen, MD, PhD, Chief Forensic Pathologist, Director^{a,b,*}

^a Provincial Forensic Pathology Unit, Ontario Forensic Pathology Service, 26 Grenville Street, Toronto, ON M7A 2G9, Canada

^b Centre for Forensic Science Medicine, Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathobiology, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 8 August 2011

Accepted 28 December 2011

Available online 3 February 2012

Keywords:

Pulmonary intravascular fat

Embolisation

Sudden death

Osmium impregnation

ABSTRACT

Pulmonary fat embolism is widely recognised in forensic pathology. Pulmonary fat embolism requires mobilisation of free fat, entry of free fat into the circulation and lodging of fat globules in fine venous capillaries. This paradigm of fat embolisation has been used to support the evidence of antemortem fat depot disruption when the presence of intravascular fat is confirmed at autopsy. However, sporadic reports of intravascular fat in various medical conditions, which contradict the above mechanism, have opened questions about the alternative pathogenesis. In this study, 65 cases of sudden deaths were examined for the presence of pulmonary intravascular fat (PIF) by osmium impregnation. Cases were selected based on the criteria that were designed to eliminate the possible confounding effect from medical intervention or postmortem changes. Slides were graded based on their ease of search and only the fat droplets confined by the blood vessel or capillary wall were considered as a positive finding. The results show surprisingly high PIF incidences of varying degrees in all the categories of sudden deaths. Further study is needed to devise criteria for diagnosis of fatal fat embolism since the histological appearance of the high-grade PIF in natural sudden death may not be easily distinguishable from the traumatic fat embolism.

© 2012 Elsevier Ltd and Faculty of Forensic and Legal Medicine. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

There are certain findings at the postmortem examination which allow pathologists to deduce the perimortem events. One of such findings is the histological detection of fat globules lodged in the fine capillaries in the lung. The finding is referred to as a pulmonary fat embolism (PFE) and it is commonly accepted that the finding represents the antemortem disturbance to the fat depot while circulation is still intact. The first description of pulmonary fat embolism appears in a book by Zenker in 1862 where a massive fat embolism was noted in the lungs of a railway worker who was crushed to death.¹ It was postulated that the fat released from the bone marrow and adipose tissues by trauma was captured by the peripheral venous capillaries and then redistributed to the lungs by the systemic circulation.^{2,3} Many case reports supporting this mechanism of fat embolisation were published as a case series from war casualties or traffic accident victims.^{3–10} Experimental studies

in animals confirmed the embolisation of fat globules from the bone marrow to the lungs via the systemic circulation.^{11–14}

In general, the reports of fat embolism in the literature could be classified by the source of the fat globules. The first group of cases has bone marrow as the source of fat. The fatty composition of the marrow and the rich vascular connections make disruption of the bone marrow as the most likely source of the fat emboli. Along with traumatic fractures of the long bones, decompression sickness,^{15–19} external cardiac massage,^{20–22} sickle cell crisis^{23–29} and osteomyelitis³⁰ all have been reported to have the PFE as secondary presentation. In addition, there are countless reports and experimental studies showing PFE as the complication of the orthopaedic surgery.^{31–36} Another major source of the PFE reported in the literature is the liver. As the primary organ of lipid metabolism, failure of the lipid processing in the liver could lead to hyperlipidaemia and disseminated fat embolism. The liver has been implicated as the source of fat in the PFE cases with carbon tetrachloride poisoning,^{37,38} fatty liver,^{39–42} viral hepatitis^{43–45} and abnormal lipid metabolism.^{46,47} Even though it is rare, the introduction of the external lipid should also be recognised as the possible mechanism of the PFE. Historically, the PFE cases following oil contrast lymphography,^{48–53} and parenteral nutrition^{54,55} have

* Corresponding author. Provincial Forensic Pathology Unit, Ontario Forensic Pathology Service, 26 Grenville Street, Toronto, ON M7A 2G9, Canada. Fax: +1 416 314 4060.

E-mail address: michael.pollanen@ontario.ca (M.S. Pollanen).

been reported. Other rare causes of the PFE includes the disruption of adipose tissue in abdominal surgery⁵⁶ and liposuction,^{57–64} and in the background of septicaemia that liberates free fatty acids from lipoproteins.^{65–68} All of these above cases share three main factors: mobilisation (or introduction) of free fat, entry of fat into the circulation and lodging of fat in venous capillaries of the lungs.

Another way of classifying the PFE cases is to classify the mechanism of the fat mobilisation. The majority of the cases have a mechanically disrupted fat source and they follow the classical pathomechanism of traumatic PFE. Biochemical alterations of the chylomicrons by various lipases have been proposed as the alternate fat liberation mechanism and experiments in animals agree with such a hypothesis.^{26,69–72} Even though the triglyceride content in chylomicron fat globules could be distinguished from the true fat globules by biochemical analysis,⁷³ the routine lipid stains typically used in the histological examination cannot show the difference between the different types of fat.^{74,75} It is also important to note that no disruption of the fat depot is needed for this non-traumatic mechanism and the diagnosis of PFE could easily be missed without histologic examination for the fat. The initial case reports of uncommon PFE in the literature are summarised in Table 1. Perhaps the most interesting set of reports of the findings of PFE includes those that presumably occur after death.^{76–79} Since the systemic circulation could not have been the vector for the fat globules, the findings of the fat in pulmonary vessels leave three possibilities: (1) existence of fat in pulmonary vessels in otherwise healthy/normal individual; (2) generation of fat *in situ*; and (3) other non-systemic circulation of fat by heat/pressure/gravity. Not much is known about the pathogenesis of pulmonary intravascular fat (PIF) without a clear fat source or systemic circulation, that is, a non-embolic mechanism.

In this study, cases of forensically significant sudden deaths were investigated for the presence of intravascular fat by osmium

impregnation. In some of the cases in this study, both traumatic and non-traumatic, previous reports have demonstrated the presence of fat droplets. In other cases in this study, however, no previous reports of PFE exist. The selection criteria were designed to eliminate the following potentially confounding variables: resuscitation attempts that could have caused rib fractures, and signs of decomposition that could have altered lung morphology and mobilised the fat from the depot. The study included a group of cases of entirely benign sudden deaths that the traditional mechanism of embolism could not apply. Therefore, all the findings of fat globules within the pulmonary vasculature were simply termed as PIF instead of PFE.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Selection criteria

Sequential cases of sudden death were selected for the study using the following criteria: (1) cases with evidence of resuscitation attempts (endotracheal tube or electrocardiogram (EKG) tabs *in situ*) were eliminated to exclude possible cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR)-related fractures leading to PFE and (2) cases showing any evidence of external or internal microscopic decomposition changes were eliminated as internal tissues liquefy and disrupt the tissue architecture. All cadavers were stored in low temperature before the autopsy to minimise the decomposition.

A total of 65 cases were selected (42 males, 23 females) representing the most common types of sudden deaths (Table 2): (1) sudden cardiac death (16 cases): the cases in this group include coronary atherosclerosis, hypertensive heart disease, acute myocardial infarct and ruptured myocardial infarct; (2) head trauma (14 cases): the cases in this group include blunt impact head trauma and gunshot wound to head; (3) asphyxia (22 cases): the cases in the group include hanging, drowning and positional asphyxia; (4) fire-related deaths (4 cases): the cases in this group include smoke inhalation and effects of fire; and (5) others (nine cases): the cases in this group did not belong to the previous four groups and include alcoholism with fatty change of liver (two cases), intracerebral haemorrhage (two cases), hypothermia (one case), ruptured atherosclerotic abdominal aortic aneurysm (one case), gagging with aspiration of gastric content (one case), cervical spine fracture (one case) and electrocution (one case). The mean age of males at the time of death was 49 years, whereas the mean age of females was 48 years.

2.2. Tissue sectioning/osmium impregnation/slide preparation

Lung tissues taken from autopsy were fixed in 10% formalin. Thin slices of lung tissue were taken systemically and post-fixed in osmium tetroxide solution (0.2% OsO₄ in 0.75% chromic acid) for 1 week for impregnation. After impregnation, tissues were processed in a Shandon Excelsior[®] tissue processor (Thermo Electron Corporation) for routine paraffin embedding. Processed tissues were then embedded in paraffin and cut using the microtome in successive sections to prevent the loss of the osmium-penetrated layer. Egg white albumin was used as an adherent to the glass slide and stained with haematoxylin and eosin.

2.3. Grading of PIF

In each case, two (2) slides showing the most surface area were selected for grading. Only uniform, round black-stained fat droplets within the blood vessels were considered as a positive finding. Severity of PIF was graded by the modified Mason's grading scale which uses the ease of searching under the microscope.⁸⁰ A score of

Table 1
Summary of atypical PFE cases in literature.

Author, Year	Title
MacMahon and Weiss (1929) ³⁷	CCl ₄ Poisoning with macroscopic fat in the pulmonary artery
Vance (1945) ⁹³	Intrauterine injection of Lysol as abortifacient
Durlacher et al. (1958) ³⁹	Sudden death due to pulmonary fat embolism in chronic alcoholics with fatty liver
David and Reinmann (1960) ⁷⁶	Pulmonary fat embolism and intravenous fat after local postmortem burning of the lungs
Clay (1963) ¹⁵	Histopathology of experimental decompression sickness
Cuppige (1963) ⁹⁴	Fat embolism in diabetes mellitus
Bron et al. (1963) ⁴⁸	Oil embolism in lymphangiography. Incidence, manifestations, and mechanism
Hendrix and Fox (1964) ⁴⁶	Relation of obesity and abnormalities of lipid metabolism to lipid embolization of lungs
Charache and Page (1967) ²³	Infarction of bone marrow in the sickle cell disorders
Broder and Ruzumna (1967) ³⁰	Systemic fat embolism following acute primary osteomyelitis
Hay et al. (1968) ⁶⁶	Fatal fat embolism associated with disseminated tuberculosis
Sack and Wegener (1968) ⁷⁷	Artificial postmortem fat embolism
Groves et al. (1969) ⁶⁷	Hyperlipidemia and pulmonary fat embolism following <i>Escherichia Coli</i> bacteraemia
Thomas and Tighe (1973)	Death from fat embolism as a complication of intraosseous phlebography
Barson et al. (1978) ⁵⁴	Fat embolism in infancy after intravenous fat infusions
Ross and Johnson (1988) ⁵⁷	Fat embolism after liposuction
Thienel et al. (1999) ⁹⁵	Fat embolism and hemorrhagic lupus pneumonitis in a patient with systemic lupus erythematosus

Table 2

Summary of cases used in this study along with their final Pulmonary Intravascular Fat (PIF) grade.

Age/Sex	Cause of death	PIF score
26/M	Coronary atherosclerosis with occlusive thrombosis in a man with acute methadone intoxication	0
56/M	Atherosclerotic and hypertensive heart disease	1.5
56/M	Atherosclerotic coronary artery disease with old myocardial infarction	0
65/F	Ruptured myocardial infarct with haemopericardium due to coronary atherosclerosis	0.5
65/M	Acute myocardial infarction due to coronary atherosclerosis with thrombosis	0.5
47/M	Atherosclerotic and hypertensive heart disease	0
53/F	Atherosclerotic coronary artery disease	0
48/M	Coronary atherosclerosis	0
51/M	Left haemothorax due to ruptured acute (localised) dissection of descending thoracic aorta	0
84/M	Ischaemic and hypertensive heart disease	1
49/M	Atherosclerotic and hypertensive heart disease	0
53/M	Atherosclerotic and hypertensive heart disease	0
47/M	Atherosclerotic heart disease (Diabetes mellitus)	0
55/F	Coronary atherosclerosis	0.5
57/M	Atherosclerotic heart disease in a man with epilepsy	1
50/F	Consistent with remote Myocarditis	0
65/M	Ruptured atherosclerotic abdominal aortic aneurysm with acute retroperitoneal haemorrhage	1.5
76/F	Acute intracerebral haemorrhage due to cerebral amyloid angiopathy	1.5
56/M	Intracerebral haemorrhage	0
74/M	Drowning in a man with hypertensive heart and atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease and acute alcohol intoxication	0
56/M	Drowning	0
20/M	Drowning	1
32/F	Drowning	0
61/F	Drowning	0
42/M	Fresh water drowning	0.5
84/M	Drowning	0
18/M	Hanging	1
31/M	Hanging	0.5
24/M	Positional asphyxia in a man with acute olanzapine intoxication	0
47/F	Hanging	0
39/M	Hanging	0.5
44/M	Hanging	0
23/F	Hanging	0
23/M	Hanging	0
50/M	Hanging	0.5
46/M	Hanging	0
55/M	Hanging	1
32/F	Hanging	0
35/F	Manual strangulation	2
36/F	Hanging	1.5
46/F	Hanging	0
42/M	Acute and chronic alcoholism	0
50/M	Chronic alcoholism	0
50/F	Acute ethanol toxicity (hypothermia)	1
84/F	Gagging with aspiration of gastric contents (postmortem burning) (Fig. 1)	2.5
38/M	Smoke inhalation and thermal injuries	1
61/F	Effects of fire	0.5
51/F	Effects of fire	1
69/F	Smoke inhalation	1.5
61/M	Intraoral gunshot wound	0
46/M	Close contact gunshot wound to head and brain	0
14/F	Blunt impact head trauma	1.5
51/F	Blunt impact head trauma with partial evisceration of brain	0

Table 2 (continued)

Age/Sex	Cause of death	PIF score
46/M	Gunshot wound of head evisceration brain	1
21/M	Gunshot wound to the head	1
32/M	Blunt impact head trauma	0.5
21/F	Blunt impact head trauma	0.5
45/M	Single close range gunshot wound to head and neck	0.5
68/M	Shotgun wound of head penetrating brain	3
40/M	Contact gunshot wound to head transecting brainstem	1
82/M	Near contact gunshot wound to the head	1.5
45/M	Intraoral gunshot wound	2
40/F	Gunshot wound to head	0
64/F	Fracture of cervical spine and cranium	1
56/M	High voltage electrocution	2

0 was given to the slides with no positive fat droplet and the highest score of 3 was given when positive fat droplets were present in large numbers. An intermediate score of 1 was given if the fat droplets were found after some searching, while a score of 2 was given when the droplets were easily found. Each slide was randomly graded using the above scale, and then an average of two slides was calculated for the final grade of each case.

3. Results

Table 2 summarises cases used in this study along with their final PIF grade. Of the 65 cases investigated, 34 cases showed some degree of PIF (52%). Table 3 compares the incidence of the PIF between sex, age groups and different causes of deaths. There was no difference of incidences between sexes as 22 out of 42 men (52%) were positive for the PIF, while 12 out of 23 women (52%) were positive. Cases from under 40 years old and over 65 years old had higher incidences than the cases between 40 and 65 years old (65%, 73% and 40% respectively). Of the cases with known antemortem fractures, 10 out of 14 cases (71%) were positive for PIF. PIF droplets found in sudden deaths (e.g., atherosclerotic heart disease) usually had diffuse distribution of fat globules, mainly involving capillaries and some involvement of larger venules.

4. Discussion

Before the origin of PIF can be discussed, it should be noted that it is assumed that no fat globules should be found in a normal living person who did not suffer from a recent injury. Both fat embolisation after injury to the fat depot and traumatic lipaemia can give rise to PIF but the fat droplets will normally be cleared by the phagocytic action of macrophages, emulsification with lipoproteins or other clearing mechanisms. Thus, postmortem findings of microscopic fat droplets occluding capillaries of the lung are widely believed to be indicative of recent injury.^{80–83}

In this study, Mason's grading scale was modified to evaluate each slide by ease of search in a given field of view. While there are more quantitative and descriptive methods available for the grading of fat emboli,⁸⁴ this method allows qualitative grouping of slides of the same grade. This method is particularly efficient with osmium impregnation detection of the fat droplets since the technique is sensitive enough to show the diffuse distribution of small fat droplets which would pose a great challenge if quantitative grading was attempted. Also, osmium impregnation could be performed on formalin-fixed specimens, whereas other lipid stains require frozen sections for the best results.^{74,75}

Table 3

The analysis of PIF incidences by sex, age group, and cause of death.

Sex	Male: 42 (22 positive)	Female: 23 (12 positive)	
Age	Under 40: 17 (11 positive)	40 to 65: 37 (15 Positive)	Over 65: 11 (8 Positive)
Cause of death	Cardiac: 16 (5 positive)	Asphyxia: 22 (9 Positive)	Other natural: 6 (3 positive)
	Fire related: 4 (4 positive)	Head trauma/GSW: 14 (10 positive)	Other violent: 3 (3 positive)
Total	34 positive for PIF out of 65 sudden deaths		

Table 3 summarises the findings of this study. Although it is not surprising to find fat globules in traumatic sudden deaths, it is important to note that some degree of PIF was found in all the types of sudden deaths that represent the majority of the medico-legal case population. In fact, in this study using osmium impregnation, it showed a very high incidence of PIF in all sudden deaths (52%, 34 out of 65 cases). Since the previous studies showing the rate of PIF in cases of natural sudden deaths is exceedingly rare, the comparison is made on the rate of fat embolism among the patients of long bone fracture. In his study, Mason et al. claimed the rate of the fat embolism to be 63% among patients with long bone fractures.⁸⁰ Subsequent studies showed great discrepancy in incidences even among traumatic cases depending on the method of investigation and only one comprehensive study in all types of sudden deaths has been conducted to date that showed an incidence of 17%.^{8,9,85–91} Most PIF found in this study were those of lower grade but showed diffuse distribution. This could mean that the fat mobilisation or generation was not complete to have larger vessels of the lung involved at the time of death and it is not directly linked to the natural disease process that leads to the terminal event.

Finding of PIF in natural deaths has been previously attributed to PFE, even though it is not entirely clear that the fat could have embolised to lung in some cases. In his book, Sevvit stated that PFE found in natural deaths are usually slight in degree and not found in capillaries without arterial pressure to force fat into capillaries.⁸¹ While this is generally true, the photomicrographs shown in Fig. 1 show a high degree of PIF found in a woman who died of gagging followed by postmortem burning. It shows a high number of intravascular fat droplets in a diffuse manner. This histological presentation suggests that fat has been generated as either a terminal process or postmortem changes of blood other than putrefaction. It has been reported that postmortem cremation results in fat embolisation.⁷⁶ All four cases of fire-related deaths in this study showed some degree of PIF. It is also the first time that PIF was recorded in a deceased who was electrocuted.

It is important to note that the incidence (but not degree or extent) of PIF in sudden deaths with significant tissue trauma is almost as high as those reported in long bone fracture patients with prolonged survival time (hours instead of minutes). Even though the presence of PIF in traumatic sudden deaths without marrow fat release is somewhat paradoxical due to the lack of time needed for fat migration, it has been recognised and studied in animal models. In his study, Suzuki et al. reported such violent sudden death cases but did not offer any alternative mechanism of fat generation and concluded that a high degree of PIF is almost a diagnostic marker of antemortem violence, irrelevant to survival time.⁸³ Other article have showed that a survival time of as little as 9 s is all that is needed for fat to travel to the lung in animal fracture models.⁹² In this study, findings of high PIF incidences in sudden deaths with significant trauma suggest that the time required for fat embolisation in a human could be much less than previously thought and may simple require as little as the terminal spasms of heart.

Even though this study showed a high incidence of PIF among all types of sudden deaths, cases of chronic alcoholism with fatty

changes of the liver did not show any PIF. This result does not confirm nor exclude the previous beliefs that the haemodynamics of the liver along with fatty changes of the liver should produce some degree of fat release into the venous system.^{41–43,45} Also, the presence of high-grade PIF after postmortem burning refutes the belief that the presence of cardiac circulation is required for fat embolisation to the lungs. However, it is reasonable to assume that convectional current might have played a role in transferring fat globules mobilised by high heat.

PIF is one of many phenomena that may help pathologists to lay out the sequence of events that led to the death of an individual. No clear mechanisms, which could explain all possible different types of PIF, have been proposed at this time. This study raises questions about the occurrence of PIF in cases of sudden death. Prospective studies that include larger datasets would clarify the types of PIF that follow the current proposed pathogenesis and those that do not. Also, the presence of fat in the normal living population should be investigated to eliminate the possibility of PIF as normal features. At this time, it is apparent that there is more than one single mechanism that governs the process of fat mobilisation or generation. Of those cases that cannot be explained by the embolisation model, further studies should investigate: (1) the presence

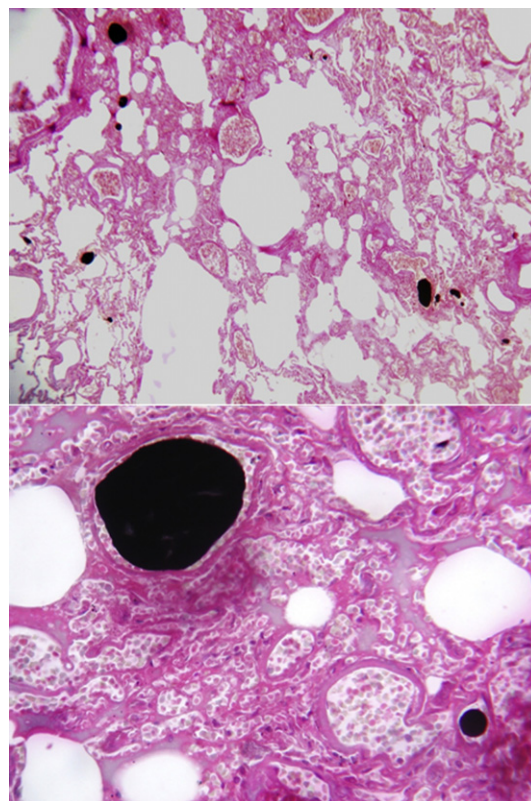


Fig. 1. Intravascular fat in lung. Osmium impregnation, H&E stain. Top: 25×. Bottom: 200×.

of other types of postmortem and perimortem fluid movement and (2) mobilisation of chylomicron fat by uncontrolled lipase activity.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Dr. Noel McAuliffe and Dr. S.D. Channa Perera for their helpful discussions. The authors are also grateful to Danny Kang for his assistance in preparing histological sections, and Amanda Mainiero for assistance in preparing the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors hereby declare that they do not have any conflict of interest.

Funding

None declared.

Ethical approval

None declared.

References

- Zenker F. *Beitrag zur normalen und pathologischen anatomie der lungen*. Dresden: J. Braunsdorf; 1862.
- Sutton GE. Pulmonary fat embolism. *Ann Surg* 1922;**76**(5):581–90.
- Robb-Smith A. Pulmonary fat-embolism. *Lancet* 1941;135–41.
- Wilson J, Salisbury C. Fat embolism in war surgery. *Br J Surg* 1944;**31**:384–92.
- Scully RE. Fat embolism in Korean battle casualties: its incidence, clinical significance and pathologic aspects. *Am J Pathol* 1956;**32**:379–97.
- Nadvornik F, Rehanek L, Vorel F. Incidence of fat embolism in 400 cases of fatal trauma. *Acta Chir Orthop Traumatol Cech* 1963;**30**:190–6.
- Greendyke RM. Fat embolism in fatal automobile accidents. *J Forensic Sci* 1964;**9**(2):201–8.
- Sevitt S. Fatal road accidents. Injuries, complications, and causes of death in 250 subjects. *Br J Surg* 1968;**55**(7):481–505.
- Lazorthes G, Bechac G, Arbus L. Traumatic fat embolism. Clinical, ophthalmoscopic and development correlations apropos of 21 cases. *Arch Ophthalmol Rev Gen Ophthalmol* 1969;**29**(6):457–62.
- Bierre AR, Koelmeyer TD. Pulmonary fat and bone marrow embolism in aircraft accident victims. *Pathology* 1983;**15**(2):131–5.
- Armin J, Grant RT. Observations on gross pulmonary fat embolism in man and the rabbit. *Clin Sci (Lond)* 1951;**10**(4):441–69.
- Halasz NA, Marasco JP. An experimental study of fat embolism. *Surgery* 1957;**41**(2):921–9.
- Kraus R, Eisenbach J, Tebruegge FJ, Strnad F. Experimental animal research on the problem of the roentgenological demonstration of fat embolism of the lung. *Med Welt* 1961;**46**:2406–12.
- Adkins RB, Foster JH. Experimental study of the genesis of fat embolism. *Ann Surg* 1962;**156**:515–27.
- Clay JR. Histopathology of experimental decompression sickness. *Aerospace Med* 1963;**34**:1107–10.
- Shim SS, Patterson FP, Kendall MJ. Hyperbaric chamber and decompression sickness: an experimental study. *Can Med Assoc J* 1967;**97**(21):1263–72.
- Ellis HA, Watson AJ. An evaluation of subatmospheric decompression as a means of causing pulmonary fat embolism. *Am J Pathol* 1969;**55**(2):203–13.
- Shim SS, Mokkhaveva S, Patterson FP, Trapp WG. Experimental fat embolism following compression-decompression in a hyperbaric chamber. *Surg Gynecol Obstet* 1969;**128**(1):103–7.
- Kitano M, Hayashi K. Acute decompression sickness – report of an autopsy case with widespread fat embolism. *Acta Pathol Jpn* 1981;**31**(2):269–76.
- Garvey JW, Zak FG. Pulmonary bone marrow emboli in patients receiving external cardiac massage. *JAMA* 1964;**187**:59–60.
- Jackson CT, Greendyke RM. Pulmonary and cerebral fat embolism after closed-chest cardiac massage. *Surg Gynecol Obstet* 1965;**120**:25–7.
- Lane Jr JH, Merkel WC. External cardiac massage: a cause of bone marrow and fat emboli. *South Med J* 1965;**58**:450–1.
- Charache S, Page DL. Infarction of bone marrow in the sickle cell disorders. *Ann Intern Med* 1967;**67**(6):1195–200.
- Garza JA. Massive fat and necrotic bone marrow embolization in a previously undiagnosed patient with sickle cell disease. *Am J Forensic Med Pathol* 1990;**11**(1):83–8.
- Horton DP, Ferriero DM, Mentzer WC. Nontraumatic fat embolism syndrome in sickle cell anemia. *Pediatr Neurol* 1995;**12**(1):77–80.
- Styles LA, Schalkwijk CG, Aarsman AJ, Vichinsky EP, Lubin BH, Kuypers FA. Phospholipase A2 levels in acute chest syndrome of sickle cell disease. *Blood* 1996;**87**(6):2573–8.
- Castro O. Systemic fat embolism and pulmonary hypertension in sickle cell disease. *Hematol Oncol Clin North Am* 1996;**10**(6):1289–303.
- Eckhardt P, Racz LE, Restrepo A, Temple JD. Pulmonary bone marrow embolism in sickle cell disease. *South Med J* 1999;**92**(2):245–7.
- Vichinsky EP, Neumayr LD, Earles AN, Williams R, Lennette ET, Dean D, et al. Causes and outcomes of the acute chest syndrome in sickle cell disease. National acute chest syndrome study group. *N Engl J Med* 2000;**342**(25):1855–65.
- Broder G, Ruzumna L. Systemic fat embolism following acute primary osteomyelitis. *JAMA* 1967;**199**(13):150–2.
- Neves M, Cruz MH, Barros JO. Death caused by pulmonary fat embolism during attempted reduction of a femur fracture. *Gaz Med Port* 1955;**8**(1):61–4.
- Fat embolism during orthopedic operation. *N Y State J Med* 1968;**68**(24):3157–9.
- Schulitz KP, Koch H, Dustmann HO. Vital intrasurgical complications due to fat embolism after the installation of total endoprostheses with polymethylmethacrylate. *Arch Orthop Unfallchir* 1971;**71**(4):307–15.
- Gresham GA, Kuczyński A, Rosborough D. Fatal fat embolism following replacement arthroplasty for transcervical fractures of femur. *Br Med J* 1971;**2**(5762):617–9.
- Letournel E, Vacher D, Temkine J. Fat embolism as a complication to be feared in total knee arthroplasty. Apropos of 2 personal cases. *Presse Med* 1971;**79**(54):2479–82.
- Terrell SP, Sundeepp Chandra AM, Pablo LS, Lewis DD. Fatal intraoperative pulmonary fat embolism during cemented total hip arthroplasty in a dog. *J Am Anim Hosp Assoc* 2004;**40**(4):345–8.
- MacMahon H, Weiss S. Carbon tetrachloride poisoning with macroscopic fat in the pulmonary artery. *Am J Pathol* 1929;**5**:623–32.
- Lahl R. Fat embolism following experimental carbon tetrachloride poisoning in mongrel rabbits. *Z Gesamte Inn Med* 1973;**28**(12):367–72.
- Durlacher SH, Meier JR, Fisher RS, Lovitt WV. Sudden death due to pulmonary fat embolism in chronic alcoholics with fatty liver. *Acta Med Leg Soc (Liege)* 1958;**11**(2):229–30.
- Loprete FP, Damodaran VN, Albano EH. Pulmonary fat embolism: case report; fatty liver. *Int Rec Med Gen Pract Clin* 1959;**172**(6):324–7.
- Lynch M, Dixon T. Fat embolism in chronic alcoholism; control study on incidence of fat embolism. *AMA Arch Pathol* 1959;**67**:68–80.
- Inoue H, Tsuji A, Kudo K, Ikeda N. Pulmonary fat embolism induced by exposure to high ambient temperature in rats with fatty liver. *Int J Legal Med* 2005;**119**(5):275–9.
- Schultz F, Hildebrand E. Excessive generalized fat embolism in acutely dystrophic fat liver. *Med Klin* 1977;**72**(2):59–63.
- Schultz F, Puschel K. An unusual form of a pulmonary fat embolism in fulminant viral hepatitis. *Pathologie* 1996;**17**(2):154–6.
- Schultz F, Trubner K, Hildebrand E. Fatal fat embolism in acute hepatic necrosis with associated fatty liver. *Am J Forensic Med Pathol* 1996;**17**(3):264–8.
- Hendrix RC, Fox JE. Relation of obesity and abnormalities of lipid metabolism to lipid embolization of lungs. *Am J Clin Pathol* 1964;**41**:55–60.
- Hillman JW, LeQuire VS. Lipid metabolism and fat embolism after trauma: the contribution of serum lipoproteins to embolic fat. *Surg Forum* 1968;**19**:465–7.
- Bron KM, Baum S, Abrams HL. Oil embolism in lymphangiography. Incidence, manifestations, and mechanism. *Radiology* 1963;**80**:194–202.
- Gough JH, Gough MH, Thomas ML. Pulmonary complications following lymphography: with a note on technique. *Br J Radiol* 1964;**37**:416–21.
- Hallgrímsson J, Clouse ME. Pulmonary oil emboli after lymphography. *Arch Pathol* 1965;**80**(4):426–30.
- Koehler PR. Typical fatal reactions after lymphography. *Cancer Chemother Rep* 1968;**52**(1):113–8.
- Gregl A, Eydt M, Fernandez-Redó E, Krack U, Yu D. Lipiodol embolism following lymphography (i. clinical part). *Fortschr Geb Röntgenstr Nuklearmed* 1968;**109**(5):575–85.
- Vahrson H. Lymphography and massive oil embolism. A case with a symptomless course. *Strahlentherapie* 1970;**140**(6):651–4.
- Barson AJ, Chistwick ML, Doig CM. Fat embolism in infancy after intravenous fat infusions. *Arch Dis Child* 1978;**53**(3):218–23.
- Nikiforov I. A rare complication of parenteral fat nutrition in a child. *Arkh Patol* 1990;**52**(7):56–9.
- Schofield Jr HL, Pratt-Thomas HR. Fat embolism following abdominal surgery; report of a case. *J S C Med Assoc* 1956;**52**(1):7–9.
- Ross RM, Johnson GW. Fat embolism after liposuction. *Chest* 1988;**93**(6):1294–5.
- Platt M, Kohler LJ, Ruiz R, Cohle SD, Ravichandran P. Deaths associated with liposuction: case reports and review of the literature. *J Forensic Sci* 2002;**47**(1):205–7.
- Iverson RE, Lynch DJ. American Society of Plastic Surgeons Committee on Patient Safety. Practice advisory on liposuction. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2004;**113**(5):1478–90.
- Kenkel JM, Brown SA, Love EJ, Waddle JP, Krueger JE, Noble D, et al. Hemodynamics, electrolytes, and organ histology of larger-volume liposuction in a porcine model. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2004;**113**(5):1391–9.
- Kenkel JM, et al. Hemodynamic physiology and thermoregulation in liposuction. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2004;**114**(2):503–13.
- Rothmann C, Ruschel N, Streiff R, Pitti R, Bollaert PE. Fat pulmonary embolism after liposuction. *Ann Fr Anesth Reanim* 2006;**25**(2):189–92.
- Toledo LS, Mauad R. Complications of body sculpture: prevention and treatment. *Clin Plast Surg* 2006;**33**(1):1–11.
- Wessman DE, Kim TT, Parrish JS. Acute respiratory distress following liposuction. *Mil Med* 2007;**172**(6):666–8.

65. MacFarlane R, Oakley C, Anderson C. Haemolysis and the production of opalescence in serum and lecitho-vitellin by the [alpha] toxin of clostridium welchii. *J Pathol Bacteriol* 1941;**52**:99–103.
66. Hay BM, Russell WA, Worth RJ. Fatal fat embolisation associated with disseminated tuberculosis. *N Z Med J* 1968;**68**(436):165–7.
67. Groves AC, Duff JH, McLean AP. Hyperlipidemia and pulmonary fat embolism following escherichia coli bacteraemia. *Br J Surg* 1969;**56**(9):707.
68. Groves AC, Duff JH, McLean AP, MacLean LD. Hyperlipidemia and pulmonary fat embolism in dogs with e-coli bacteremia. *Surgery* 1970;**68**(4):656–61.
69. Alcindor LG, Etienne J, Flottes D, Polonovski J. Plasma phospholipase and phospholipase in fat embolism. *Ann Biol Clin (Paris)* 1974;**32**(3):257–60.
70. Dimant J, Shafir E. Lipase activities in the lungs of rats subjected to experimental hypertriglyceridemia and fat embolism. *Isr J Med Sci* 1974;**10**(12):1551–9.
71. Rautanen M, Gullichsen E, Grönroos J, Kuttilla K, Nelimarkka O, Niinikoski J, et al. Catalytic activity of phospholipase a2 in serum in experimental fat embolism in pigs. *Eur J Surg* 1997;**163**(6):449–56.
72. Kuypers FA, Styles LA. The role of secretory phospholipase a2 in acute chest syndrome. *Cell Mol Biol (Noisy-le-grand)* 2004;**50**(1):87–94.
73. Hallgren B, Kerstell J, Rudenstam CM, Svanborg A. A method for the isolation and chemical analysis of pulmonary fat emboli. *Acta Chir Scand* 1966;**132**:613–7.
74. Davidson PR, Cohle SD. Histologic detection of fat emboli. *J Forensic Sci* 1987;**32**(5):1426–30.
75. Tracy RE, Walia P. A method to fix lipids for staining fat embolism in paraffin sections. *Histopathology* 2002;**41**(1):75–9.
76. David H, Reimann W. Pulmonary fat embolism and intravenous fat after local postmortem burning of the lungs. *Dtsch Z Gesamte Gerichtl Med* 1960;**49**:382–7.
77. Sack K, Wegener F. Artificial postmortem fat embolism. *Zentralbl Allg Pathol* 1968;**111**(1):24–31.
78. Allardyce DB. Fat embolism and the postmortem interval. *Surg Forum* 1969;**20**:212–4.
79. Allardyce DB. The postmortem interval as a factor in fat embolism. *Arch Pathol* 1971;**92**(4):248–53.
80. Mason JK. Pulmonary fat and bone marrow embolism as an indicator of ante-mortem violence. *Med Sci Law* 1968;**8**(3):200–6.
81. Sevitt S. *Fat embolism*. 1st ed. , London: Butterworths; 1962. 233 p.
82. Sevitt S. The significance and pathology of fat embolism. *Ann Clin Res* 1977;**9**(3):173–80.
83. Suzuki T, Ikeda N, Umetsu K, Kashimura S. Pulmonary fat embolism as an ante-mortem reaction in traumatic immediate death. *Med Sci Law* 1984;**24**(3):175–8.
84. Bunai Y, Yoshimi N, Komoriya H, Iwasa M, Ohya I. An application of a quantitative analytical system for the grading of pulmonary fat embolisms. *Forensic Sci Int* 1988;**39**(3):263–9.
85. Pazell JA, Peltier LF. Experience with sixty-three patients with fat embolism. *Surg Gynecol Obstet* 1972;**135**(1):77–80.
86. Moreau JP. Fat embolism: a review and report of 100 cases. *Can J Surg* 1974;**17**(4):196–9.
87. Lavarde G. Post-traumatic fat embolism. Apropos of 272 French cases. *J Chir (Paris)* 1975;**109**(2):221–52.
88. Buchanan D, Mason J. Occurrence of pulmonary fat and bone marrow embolism. *Am J Forensic Med Pathol* 1982;**3**(1):73–8.
89. Grellner W, Madea B. Pulmonary micromorphology in fatal strangulations. *Forensic Sci Int* 1994;**67**(2):109–25.
90. Behn C, Hopker WW, Puschel K. Fat embolism – a too infrequently determined pathoanatomic diagnosis. *Versicherungsmedizin* 1997;**49**(3):89–93.
91. Mudd KL, Hunt A, Matherly RC, Goldsmith LJ, Campbell FR, Nichols 2nd GR, et al. Analysis of pulmonary fat embolism in blunt force fatalities. *J Trauma* 2000;**48**(4):711–5.
92. Green H, Stoner H. *Biological actions of the adenine nucleotides*. London: H.K. Lewis & Co. Ltd; 1950. 221 p.
93. Vance B. Intrauterine injection of lysol as an abortifacient. *Arch Pathol (Chic)* 1945;**40**:395–8.
94. Cuppage FE. Fat embolism in diabetes mellitus. *AM J Clin Pathol* 1963;**40**:270–5.
95. Thienel U, Yellin M, Blume R. Fat embolism and hemorrhagic lupus pneumonitis in a patient with systemic lupus erythematosus. *J Rheumatol* 1999;**26**(8):1849.